

Land policy REVIEW

Contents FOR WINTER 1946 Vol. IX, No. 4

	Page
Transferring Farms in Families . . John F. Timmons	3
Regional Research Laboratories . Louis B. Howard	8
Action Programs in Nutrition . . Robert H. Shields	13
Toward a World Food Program . . . Henry Jarrett	17
Yearbooks Reconstituted Alfred Stefferud	23
Books Oscar Zaglits, Lydia Ann Lynde, Lois Olson, E. J. Working	26

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS



Contributors

JOHN H. TIMMONS is a frequent contributor to the REVIEW. A land economist in BAE, he is also involved in research in matters relating to tenure in connection with the several regional land tenure research committees.

LOUIS B. HOWARD, Chief of the Bureau of Agricultural and Industrial Chemistry, spoke to the Agricultural Outlook Conference on the work of the Regional Research Laboratories and was at once asked to give the substance of that talk to our readers.

ROBERT H. SHIELDS, Administrator of the Production and Marketing Administration, contributed his talk almost as it was given at that Conference.

HENRY JARRETT is Assistant Director of Information of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.

ALFRED STEFFERUD is now the editor of the revived and redesigned Yearbook series published by the USDA.

OSCAR ZAGLITS, of OFAR, is in charge of the Finance and Trade Policy Section; **LYDIA ANN LYNDE** is Extension Specialist in Home Economics; **LOIS OLSON**, an economic geographer, has been in the Office of Strategic Services since early war days; **E. J. WORKING**, Professor and Chief in Agricultural Economics, University of Illinois, in recent months has been Visiting Research Professor at the School of Business, University of Chicago.

**An Index to volumes 8 and 9 of the LAND POLICY REVIEW will
be sent on request**

LAND . POLICY . REVIEW

Land Policy Review is published quarterly by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture, with approval of the Bureau of the Budget. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., 10 cents a single copy, 30 cents a year; 40 cents foreign.

Transferring Farms Within Families

By JOHN F. TIMMONS. *Tenure has been recognized as a basic study since agricultural economics had its organized beginnings, and long before. Yet in its several forms and aspects it continues to offer fundamental problems in many lands, including our own. This author now considers phases that confront every farm owner, sooner or later.*



FARM TRANSFERS within families constitute an important segment of our land-tenure process, even though the American system demands that channels to land ownership must always remain open for young farmers whose parents do not own land. The old saying that the surest way to acquire a farm is to inherit or marry one has a great deal of truth in it. And judging from experiences of other countries and older parts of our own country, we may expect farm transfers within families to become even more numerous as the country becomes older.

Right now, an unusually large number of farm owners and their prospective heirs are searching for the best ways of transferring the home farms. For more farmers now

own their farms than ever before. Mortgage debt is at the lowest point in 30 years, so more owners have larger equities to transfer. Furthermore, during the war farmers remained on their farms as active operators beyond their normal retirement age. As their sons and daughters return home from the military services and war plants the need for arrangements whereby the younger generation can get started farming as the older generation retires becomes acute.

The process of transferring farms from one generation to the next is fraught with many problems, some of which are serious. All too frequently the death of the owner is followed by the disintegration of the farm as a going unit of production. The farm is sold to settle the estate, or the land is divided among the

heirs into uneconomic units, or the heir who buys out the others must mortgage the farm excessively, or life-interests of various kinds arise to plague the continuity and stability of the ownership and operation of the farm.

Breaking up the farm as a going concern at the death of the owner is probably the most serious of these problems. All farm communities bear scars of sales made to settle estates. These dispersement sales destroy the going-concern value of prosperous well-organized farms by scattering to the four winds the machinery, herds, and other forms of capital. The new operator must repeat the costly and inefficient process of reassembling the necessary productive factors into a balanced and profitable farm organization.

Another problem is associated with our general expectation—right or wrong—that farms should pay for themselves in each successive generation. For except when a farm is inherited by one heir, farm transfers within families usually necessitate recapitalization of the farm, in whole or in part, each generation. Normally, as several heirs share in a farm, the heir who remains on it goes in debt for that part of the farm that is not included in his own share of the inheritance. In times of inflated land prices, like the present, estate settlements often saddle the heir-operator with a debt that is beyond the long-term earning power of the farm. This is one of the main reasons for farm mortgages, particularly in older parts of the country where transfers within families are more numerous.

The American ideal of owner-operatorship is further affected by the annual transfer of around a bil-

lion dollars of farm wealth to urban residents partially offset by transfer of urban wealth to farm people and by the transfer of farms from landlord father to landlord son.

Expected Objectives

Farm transfers within families should be viewed in the light of the expected objectives. Generally speaking, farm transfers within families should transfer economic farm organizations from one generation to the next with a minimum of problems. During this process the essential unity of the farm as a going concern should not be seriously disturbed. Ownership by the member of the younger generation should be obtained early in life while his enthusiasm is high and his physical vigor is strong. When owner-operatorship must be temporarily delayed and tenancy must be accepted as an intermediate stage, the conditions surrounding the tenancy should be as favorable as practicable to the welfare of the owner, to the security and living conditions of the tenant, and to the productivity of the farm. In the process of transfer, the younger generation of farmers should benefit from the experience and judgment of the old, yet the older generation should be fully protected during their declining years.

Parents' Security

Perhaps the most important single objective of farm transfers within the family relates to the security of the parents. This is recognized by State laws of descent as well as in most wills drawn by or for farmers. According to State laws a widow may not be deprived of her dower

interests in her deceased husband's lands. Most farm wills or other farm transfer arrangements provide for parents' income and security during old age—together or as a survivor. Yet, almost every farm community can point to an example of parents who have impoverished themselves to give their children a start in farming. To the degree that their security is achieved much mental as well as physical suffering by the parents may be avoided and they can enjoy the independence they have earned and now deserve.

Equitability

Equitable treatment of the children is the second major objective in farm transfers within families. But unfortunately the concept of equality, so deeply ingrained in American culture, is frequently substituted for the principle of equitability. As a result, the children or other heirs are not rewarded in proportion to their individual contributions to the welfare of the farm and parents. Moreover, equality of division—not equitability—guides our laws of descent. Even farm owners are reluctant to will or otherwise transfer property to their children on any basis except equal division for fear of creating ill will or jealousy among the heirs.

Basic Difficulties

Many problems associated with transferring farms within families grow out of two basic characteristics of rural families and their farms. Farm families have an average of three or four children while farms average only 195 acres in size. Most farms are too small to be divided

Speak to the earth and it shall teach thee.

—JOB: XII: 8

among the several children without creating tracts of uneconomic size, or tracts with heavy mortgages, or both.

Problems of transferring the home farm are aggravated by conflicts among the basic purposes. The generally accepted purpose of equality is in conflict with the purpose of equitability based upon what each prospective heir contributes to and receives from the farm. The desirability of transferring the farm to the younger generation early in life of the young people frequently conflicts with the parents' purpose of providing for their own old age. Few farmers can save enough to retire and hand the ownership as well as the operation of their land over to their children. So the son who remains on the farm is never quite sure of his position. His tenure may come to a sudden and disastrous end at the parents' deaths when other heirs push for a settlement of the estate. Lacking surety of expectations, the son has little more incentive to build up the farm than the usual tenant who has only an annual lease.

Even the most successful father-and-son partnership may end in disaster if no property transfer arrangement is worked out as the foundation for the farm operating agreement. The son or son-in-law who is in the process of taking over the home farm without such a property

transfer arrangement is left in a predicament when the parents die and the farm is distributed among all legal heirs according to State laws of descent.

Alternative Methods

Alternative methods of transferring farms within families include gifts, annuities, wills, laws of descent, purchase contracts, and sales of farms from parents to children. Numerous procedures and variations within these major methods are being used by farm owners. Choice of method is necessarily influenced by the objectives to be achieved and by the conditions surrounding the transfer such as number of heirs, amounts of land and other property, and the economic position of the parents.

Gifts

If an owner can afford to, he may distribute his lands among his heirs during his lifetime. This practice, sometimes called premature inheritance, gives the heir control over the land at an earlier age than he would have it through a will or a law of descent. Gifts of land are increasing as inheritance and estate taxes grow heavier.

Unfortunately most farm parents cannot afford to transfer lands

among their heirs during their lifetimes. Circumstances demand that they retain ownership of their property, to provide them the income they will need during old age. They must search for alternatives that are more in keeping with their circumstances.

Annuities

An annuity may enable an owner to turn over qualified ownership of land to his children, yet retain annual income rights for himself and his wife. The annuity principle has long been used in insurance to provide a person with a fixed annual income for the rest of his life. To a limited degree annuities have been used in land transfers in the form of "bonds of maintenance" or "Bohemian contracts"—contributions to our land system from Central Europe.

Analogous to annuities for the parents are interest-bearing loans made by the parents to each of the children with provision in the notes that all or a stated amount of the indebtedness is to be cancelled automatically within a period of weeks following the decease of the longer living of the two parents.

The possible use of annuities should be examined by more farm owners, for they have much to offer in the interests of promoting the security of parents, the welfare of their children, and the continuity of the organization of farms.

Wills

Farm owners may will their lands to whom and in such manner as they please with only two important exceptions. The husband cannot de-

Personal

The land a man works with his own hands is as personal to him as the clothes he wears.

—GEORGE SAND

feat the dower rights of his wife. Land owners cannot impose restrictions upon future generations through entail, primogeniture, and other remnants of feudalism.

The use of wills permits parents to retain ownership right up to the moment of their deaths and then to distribute their property as they wish. Scattered studies indicate, however, that the majority of farm owners do not prepare wills. The reasons offered for not using this privilege include inertia, superstitions, and lack of knowledge of the alternative transfer practices in line with the needs of land owners.

In taking advantage of the privilege of transferring land by will, the owner must follow certain procedures prescribed by law. He must be of legal age, and of sound mind. The will must be in writing and be signed by the testator before witnesses. Wills may be changed as often and as much as the maker desires as long as these legal requirements are met. Family changes in the form of marriages, births, and deaths and changes in the family's economic position demand that wills be reviewed every year or so and revised whenever necessary.

Laws

In case a farm owner fails to make arrangements for transferring his property, it is distributed by the State laws of descent among his widow and children, or other legal heirs. In theory, these laws take effect simultaneously with the owner's death since land cannot be without an owner under our system of private property. In practice, the probate court ascertains the legal heirs shortly after the owner's death.

Laws of descent differ considerably from State to State, but the widow's welfare is always protected through dower rights—generally a life interest in one-third of the deceased husband's land. Some States also provide for the widower's welfare in the form of curtesy rights. All remaining interests in land are distributed equally among the children. Or, if there are no children, the land goes to other next of kin.

But Soon

Satisfactory farm transfers within families are not easily achieved. They are subject to the many human emotions and sentiments which reach their peak in family relationships. Because of the delicate human relationships involved, it is difficult for families to face with objectivity and foresight the question of transferring their homes and their farms. They are not likely to know about and to weigh carefully the various alternatives open to them. They are prone to delay matters. But today's swift-moving events demand that farm property arrangements—the institutional basis of American agriculture—be kept sound and continuous. This, in turn, requires that farm families give careful study to alternative farm transfer arrangements and the probable results of each upon their individual family conditions. To be effective this study should be followed by prompt and effective plans and action for carrying out these family decisions. This action is demanded by the future welfare of the family, the farm, and the rural community.

THE *Four Regional Research Laboratories*

By LOUIS B. HOWARD. *A certain fascination always lurks in the possibilities of extending the uses of raw products, developing valuable byproducts, and utilizing wastes or near wastes. The four Regional Research Laboratories, established under Congressional authorization a few years ago, can list some noteworthy achievements in these fields.*



FOUR Regional Research Laboratories were established primarily to search for new and wider outlets and markets for agricultural commodities in the fields of industry and foods. The Department of Agriculture had been searching for industrial outlets for farm products in a limited way for perhaps 30 years, but somewhat as a side line. The chemurgic movement in the late twenties advocated the industrial utilization of farm crops, and some other public and private agencies and some State Agricultural Colleges were interested. But the interest was more or less sectional or spotted until the heavy surpluses of farm crops began to beat down prices in the early thirties. In 1938, the Congress authorized the Secretary of Agriculture to establish these large research centers for work in such utilization. This marked the beginning of the Federal Government's entry into the industrial utilization field on a large scale.

One well-equipped and well-staffed laboratory was established in

each of the four major farm producing areas of the country. They are located at Peoria, Ill., for the North Central States; at New Orleans, for the South; at Philadelphia, for the East; and at Albany, in the San Francisco Bay area, for the West. They are operated by the Bureau of Agricultural and Industrial Chemistry of the Agricultural Research Administration, and work began in them in 1941.

The research on the production of synthetic liquid motor fuel from agricultural residues or so-called farm-waste materials is rather well known. The process calls for the chemical conversion of corn cobs, sugarcane bagasse, peanut shells, flax shives, and cottonseed hulls into liquid motor fuels and other commercially valuable products. A new factory-type building on the grounds of the Northern Laboratory now being equipped, will be in production by the end of this year. It is estimated that probably half of the 200 million tons of farm waste produced in the United States each year might be available for use in

making motor fuel. Corncobs will be the first waste material to be tried in this new plant.

Down in the Florida Everglades a large sugar corporation has started large-scale production of sweetpotato starch in a new factory which is the largest of its kind in the world. This was built on the faith the company officials had in the work on sweetpotato starch the Bureau of Agricultural and Industrial Chemistry has carried on for more than 10 years. Scientists in the Southern Laboratory, where the sweetpotato utilization work is done, supplied a great deal of the technical information needed in the construction and initial operation of this new plant, which will consume the annual crop from around 12,000 acres of sweetpotatoes. A bushel of these potatoes produces from 10 to 13 pounds of starch and about 5 pounds of cattle feed. The cattle feed contains from 85 to 90 percent of the feeding value of corn, and is fed along with other mixtures to more than 2,000 head of cattle that are being continuously fattened on the company's holdings.

Penicillin Pronto

Fortunately these laboratories were completed and staffed in time to aid in wartime research. Here are found some dynamic results. More than 150 research projects dealing with the use of agricultural commodities in the war were carried on. Scientists in the Northern Laboratory quickly increased the yield of penicillin so it could be produced on a commercial scale. They did this by feeding the mold that produces penicillin a new diet composed mainly of two agricultural

On the Way

*More than a man can carry
comfortably is a man's share—
there is so much to be carried.
We ought to stagger at times
but not to stagger long-faced.*

—W. C. GANNETT

products—corn-steeping liquor, a by-product from the manufacture of cornstarch, and lactose or milk sugar. The value of penicillin produced in 1945 is estimated at more than 100 million dollars, but no money value can be placed on the human lives saved as a result of the large-scale commercial production made possible by the laboratory scientists shortly after our entry into the war.

Stronger Tires

Wartime research in the Southern Laboratory showed that better tire cord can be made from cotton by using varieties of cotton selected specifically for this purpose on the basis of their physical properties. Passenger-car tires made from standard and improved cotton cord ran more than 68,000 miles, with one recapping, at a sustained highway speed of 60 miles an hour which, as readers well know, cuts the rubber off a tire pretty fast. These tests were made by the Army Ordnance Department at its proving grounds at San Antonio. In light truck-tire tests, in rear-wheel positions, tires made from a selected variety of cot-

ton gave 300 percent more mileage than tires made from regular commercial cotton cord.

This research shows that the time has come for us to begin to give more thought to the selection of varieties of cotton and other crops that possess the characteristics needed for the things we want to make. That is particularly true of crops grown for industrial purposes.

Soft-Grit Blasting

At the beginning of the war the Navy was using hominy grits for cleaning carbon from the engines of its aircraft. As hominy is a food, we were asked to search for a non-food material that could be used for this purpose. One of the laboratories developed a soft-grit blasting material made from corncobs and rice hulls, both largely waste products of the farm. The mixture is composed of 60 percent ground corncobs and 40 percent whole rice hulls. It is used in regular air-blasting equipment.

This new method has several advantages over previous methods of cleaning. It removes carbon, oil, and other deposits and gives the metal a clean, dry surface without grinding away or reducing the size of the cleaned parts, and it works about 10 times faster than the hand method. As a result of this research, first on a laboratory and then on a pilot-plant scale, the soft-grit blasting method is now going into commercial use. One large company that rebuilds automobiles has adopted it for cleaning pistons, fuel and water pumps, and carburetors. Another company is using it when cleaning aluminum foundry cores, a

glass company is using it to clean glass molds, and a large oil company is using it for cleaning paint from the roofs of its huge gasoline storage tanks—for the soft-grit material does not produce sparks.

Under normal conditions this country uses many brushes of many kinds. Before the war, imported hog bristles were used extensively in the manufacture of some of these brushes. Imported bristle from China has been better than our domestic-produced bristle. One of the laboratories has developed a continuous process for the production of casein fiber for making brushes. One commercial firm has decided to manufacture casein bristle according to the continuous method developed in the laboratory. It has constructed a factory building for this work and plans to start trial runs as soon as equipment can be installed.

Rutin from Buckwheat

Chemists in the Eastern Laboratory appear to be on the verge of making a hero out of the lowly buckwheat plant. Buckwheat is being used to produce a drug called rutin, which is extracted from the leaves and blossoms of the green plant. Rutin gives promise of being beneficial in treating persons who are suffering from high blood pressure associated with increased capillary fragility. The results of clinical tests thus far indicate that rutin helps to strengthen the weak capillaries. During the last 30 months more than 1,200 cases have been studied by research men at the University of Pennsylvania Medical School and its affiliated hospital. About 20 percent of the patients treated with rutin were suffering

from fragile capillaries. Of these, 88 percent were restored to normal.

The job of the laboratory scientists is to work out practical and economical methods for extracting rutin on a commercial scale. The clinical work is done by medical people. During the summer of 1945 about 300 pounds were extracted from green buckwheat plants by four large drug manufacturers under the technical guidance of chemical engineers from the Philadelphia Laboratory. The quantity will be much larger this year. As the plant is cut green, it is possible to get two and in some instances three crops of buckwheat in one season when it is used for rutin. By a rough estimate, it will require about 10,000 pounds of rutin to meet the experimental demand for the drug this year, and more than a million pounds a year to meet medicinal requirements should the present promising results be substantiated and the drug be placed on the open market. This would mean that about 50,000 acres of buckwheat would be needed each year for its production.

Strange Fibers

Easterners may be surprised to learn that the scientists at the Western Laboratory are trying to find a market for chicken feathers. Feathers—like wool, hair, hoofs, and horns—are composed largely of a fibrous protein called keratin. Around 175 million pounds of chicken feathers are wasted each year. Fundamental research looking toward the industrial utilization of at least a part of this material has led to the production, on a pilot-plant scale, of keratin or chicken-feather fiber. The wet strength of

Gain & Loss

Diligence increaseth the fruit of toil. A dilatory man wrestles with losses.

—HESIOD

this new fiber is still too low for practical purposes, but the chemists hope to solve that phase eventually. Wet strength has always been a problem in the production of synthetic fibers.

Laboratory scientists are at work on an artificial textile fiber that appears to be suitable for blending with rayon, cotton, and wool for knitting yarns and woven fabrics. It is called zein and is being produced experimentally in the Northern Laboratory. The finished fiber has a rich creamy appearance. Its dry strength is equal to that of wool, but the wet strength is only about half of the dry strength, so there is need for more research. The fibers are not damaged by washing with soap solutions. This is a protein fiber made from the gluten of corn. It is believed that the spinning and finishing of zein fibers can be made continuous which will be a decided advantage over the batch method of production. One commercial company is getting ready for research on a pilot-plant scale on the production of this new fiber, and the textile industry generally appears to be interested in the product.

Research in the Southern laboratory has resulted in the production on an experimental scale of a pea-

nut-protein fiber now named Sarelon. It has a light cream color, and a soft pleasant feel about midway between silk and wool. It takes dyes similar to those used on silk and wool, and shrinks very little in hot water. In its heat-insulating and moisture-absorbing properties it resembles wool. It may be used alone or mixed with cotton or wool fibers. Its major weakness is its low wet strength, but efforts are being made to improve this property.

It should be borne in mind, of course, that these synthetic fibers, now being produced on an experimental scale in the four Research Laboratories, are being developed not to replace cotton, wool, or other natural fibers, but in the hope of strengthening the natural fibers. The scientists hope to improve textile materials by combining the special properties of the new synthetics with the proven qualities of the natural fibers.

For the Table

Investigations at these Laboratories are not confined to industrial outlets for agricultural commodities. The scientists work on any program that gives promise of expanding or increasing the outlets for farm products. This calls for some research in the food field, and the California Laboratory has made some worthwhile contributions to that part of the utilization program.

Velva Fruit, an ice-cream-like product that can be made from fully ripened fruit, which is often too soft for shipment, is an example of a new outlet in this field. Several hundred thousand gallons of this dessert were

sold on the commercial market in 1945 as a result of research.

The Western Laboratory has developed new food products in which modified pectin is used like gelatin or starch in powdered mixtures for preparing a jelly-like dessert. These new products can be made without cooking or hot water. Scientists developed a ready-to-use low-sugar jellied fruit salad or dessert, sterilized by heat and preserved in tin cans. During the war more than 20 million cans were packed commercially for use in Army field rations.

Pilot-Plant Research

Not all of the achievements can be mentioned here. It is easy to be too enthusiastic about the laboratory possibilities but one-third of the space in each of the laboratories is devoted to what is known as pilot-plant research. That kind of research carries promising results on beyond the test-tube stage into what is sometimes termed semicommercial production, where cost figures and data can be obtained on a broader scale.

The need for the type of research that is being done in these four laboratories may be greater tomorrow than ever before because farmers eventually must face the tremendous problem of adjusting expanded wartime production to peacetime demands. This is particularly true in sections where large acreages have been devoted to war crops. New outlets or even a slight expansion of present outlets for some of these commodities might aid materially in the conversion program when it comes.

Action Programs To Improve Nutrition

By ROBERT H. SHIELDS. *The nutritional well-being of this Nation has long been a major concern of the Department. For more than 50 years it has carried on research in nutrition and it has done a great deal of educational work to spread knowledge of the principles of good diet. Mr. Shields reminds us. Here he describes action programs that are aimed directly toward results.*



ACTION PROGRAMS by the Department of Agriculture have brought improved nutrition directly to those who need it most. This is as it should be. To my mind, raising the national nutritional level is of prime importance to every farmer in the land. For him, it is both a responsibility and an opportunity. It is a responsibility because feeding the American people is the farmer's job. It is an opportunity because better standards of diet mean greater demand for farm products and more money in the farmer's pocket.

Today, many phases of our National Farm Program reflect the interest of the Department in improved nutrition. In the first place, it is an important consideration in setting farm production goals. A well-balanced supply of food in the country leads to well-balanced meals on your table and mine. Setting yearly goals in advance, with correlated price-support programs, helps to prevent a lop-sided food supply that would not protect the Nation nutritionally.

Producing plenty of the right foods is only part of the job. This food must be well distributed to all levels of the population. And people must know how to plan meals wisely so as to include all the necessary food elements in their daily diet.

Here is a brief summary of the so-called action programs through which we are now able to promote better nutrition directly. It so happens that most of the programs in this group are administered by the Production and Marketing Administration.

The School Lunch program is familiar to millions. It strikes rather close to the heart of our national nutrition problem. The physical condition of our young people, as revealed by examinations for the armed services, is convincing proof that many of them are not properly nourished. We can be certain that work among children is one of the surest ways of raising nutritional levels in the America of tomorrow.

Every day in a child's life is important in terms of growth. Every missed or inadequate meal means

that poorer body structure is formed. Teachers and parents have found, too, that when a child is well-nourished he is more responsive to education. He is more interested and attentive and presents fewer disciplinary problems. In addition, well-balanced meals at school help to fix the patterns of good diet in a child's mind. They encourage him to form good eating habits that will help him to health throughout his life. Every child who eats nutritious lunches at school will be a potentially better citizen in after years.

School Lunches Permanent

Born of the depression, Federal aid for school lunches has continued and expanded for 11 years because of the widespread recognition of its worth. With the enactment last spring of the National School Lunch Act, Congress has put this work on a permanent basis for the first time. The programs will no longer be dependent upon annual authorizations. This constructive action by Congress opens the door for better long-range planning for the programs, and for expansion of Federal-State cooperation to safeguard the health of our children and at the same time provide wider outlets for farm production. Incidentally, we were able to announce recently that all 48 States, the District of Columbia, and the territories have now signed the agreements under which the lunch programs can go forward.

Direct Distribution

Tying in closely with the School Lunch Program is the Direct Distribution Program. Through it, the Department distributes fresh fruits

and vegetables and other foods purchased as part of its price-support plan. These commodities are turned over to schools for use in the lunch program, or sent to institutions or welfare recipients. This diversion has a stabilizing effect on market prices at times of peak production and serves to improve the diet of our school children and the people in our benevolent institutions.

Saving Food

Then there is the Department's Home Food Preservation Program, which has been instrumental in establishing more than 6 thousand community canning centers. Through these centers, local surplus foods are saved for family and school-lunch use. These make a great contribution to nutritional well-being, for the canning centers help keep fruits and vegetables on the Nation's table the year round. They prevent food waste in peak production seasons. And they provide a means for canning commodities bought by the Department of Agriculture under the Direct Purchase Program.

The Industrial Feeding Program also is aimed at raising the nutritional level and increasing food consumption. It was started during the war, when the need for maintaining the health and efficiency of industrial workers was keenly felt. It provides technical and informational services to industrial feeding facilities. Thus it helps to improve the diet and health of a segment of the population that is often found to be badly nourished. At the same time, an important market is developed for plentiful and surplus food.

There is a special program de-

signed to stimulate increased movement of agricultural commodities through normal trade channels at times of peak production, known as the Abundant Foods Marketing Program. Its work is accomplished partly through personal contacts with the food trade associations and other interested groups. It uses all methods of information, education, and trade promotion available to the Department.

Through all these means, attention is focused on agricultural commodities that are in heavy supply. All groups and persons involved work together to keep abundant products flowing smoothly to market and to increase consumption. The consumers' attention is called to these nutritional bargains and to the food values gained by buying when they are abundant. Publicity used in the campaign also stresses proper cooking methods to preserve the best nutritive value of the food.

Coordinating Program

The National Nutrition Program is a continuation of the defense and war program designed to extend the knowledge and practice of good nutrition. It is a coordinating program, providing machinery through which all agencies in the field of nutrition can bring their educational and other resources in line with a common objective. Through cooperation, it works to raise the nutritional level throughout the country and to make the best use of the available food supply.

These are some of the ways in which the Department is fostering a more even distribution of food products and better nutrition in our country. They are programs that

have been developed through years of depression, war, and famine. Now we are emerging into a new and different period.

Examine and Evaluate

There has been a great demand for all the farm products this country could raise in the recent past. But now farmers in war-torn areas are bringing their land back into production and the situation in regard to food demand will soon be materially changed. Obviously the time may come when we can't find export outlets for the same quantity of food that has been going abroad in the last few years. The time may come, too, when domestic buying power will not be so high as now. Many families who can provide themselves with balanced diets in good times can't do so when prosperity goes around the corner.

As we contemplate our probable future production and distribution problems, it is necessary to examine our present programs closely and evaluate them objectively. How well are they meeting present needs? How can they be improved and made to contribute more to the general welfare? How can they be kept flexible, capable of changing quickly with changing times?

We are constantly working with these problems. The School Lunch Program has been placed on a more sound and permanent basis, assuring continuing Federal assistance with school lunches. Some 7 million school children benefited from the program during last fiscal year, and more can be included this year. New features are being added, such as the dry skim milk program started on a trial basis last fall. Six-

teen schools in areas where fresh milk is not available for children's lunches received dry skim milk to serve as a beverage and to use in cooking. If this program is a success, its blessings might well be extended and could result in a very significant gain because in several States fluid milk is still lacking in 40 percent of the school lunches.

In Addition

Besides improvement in existing programs, it may be necessary for us to consider the advisability of some such program as the prewar Food Stamp Plan to bring better nutrition to low-income groups—especially if consumer income drops to lower levels. The outlet for food products would be greatly increased if low-income people were able to buy enough of the kinds and qualities of food that make up an adequate diet, and obviously the consumers involved could have better diets.

Proposals have been made for increasing the food consumption of these low-income families. Most of the proposed plans for a national food-distribution program suggest that a minimum level of food consumption be established. Then low-income people would be given as-

sistance that would enable them to raise their consumption to that level. The lower the participant's income the greater the purchasing power supplement.

Whether any of these proposed programs are authorized will undoubtedly depend primarily on economic developments. If in the future we have any serious unemployment, with its accompanying sharp drop in consumer income, it is certain that the possibilities of such programs will be studied carefully. If farm surpluses begin to pile up again, it would be advisable to try to increase distribution and consumption before, for the long pull, resorting to any necessary production adjustments. As long as there are hungry people in our country, the way should be kept open for farmers to continue producing the kinds of food needed for a good national diet.

Experience we have gained through the development and administration of these action programs gives us a great advantage. We know more about getting food to needy people than we did 10 or 15 years ago, and we have a fuller realization of the need to protect both the nutrition of our consumers and the market outlets of our farmers.

Men change with the growth of custom and the evolution of their own man-made institutions. The evidence is all about us. Even during this war of survival our Nation has fostered a growing social consciousness based firmly on a more widespread recognition of human values.

—FRANCES PERKINS

TOWARD A *World Food Program*

By HENRY JARRETT. *FAO's Copenhagen Conference and the Preparatory Commission Meeting which followed in Washington are two steps along the road toward that program, said the author, when he sent this requested report to our readers.*



COPENHAGEN, where the Food and Agriculture Organization Conference met in September, is a hard place to leave in more ways than one. The city has an air of lived-in solidity and an unhurried pace, and its people show an easy-going friendliness. Visitors want to keep putting off their departure for just a couple of days more. Besides, Copenhagen, at least during the early fall of this year, seemed to be a blank spot on the map for west-bound world travel. Even when you had made up your mind to leave, you usually still had to whistle for a plane or ship to leave in.

So for one reason or another, the last of the people returning to North America from the Conference did not straggle home many days before delegates to the Preparatory Commission on a long-range world food program began arriving in Washington.

It was not just the accident of a global traffic jam that connected the two meetings so closely. Both are links in the same chain. In fact, now that the Preparatory Commission has begun its work, it is no longer easy to look back on the Copenhagen Conference as an event

complete in itself. The meeting was fruitful on several counts, but already it is earmarked as the Conference that at least started toward doing something definite about the old problem of surpluses and shortages of food and agricultural products.

When the Conference opened there was a general feeling among member governments that something ought to be done to solve the long-standing riddle and Sir John Orr, FAO Director-General, had submitted his recommendations as to how the problem might be attacked. That was about all. By the time the Conference closed the 47 member countries had decided international action was needed, had agreed upon the objectives to be sought, and had established a preparatory commission to draft a working blueprint of a long-range program for reaching those objectives.

The Conference opened on a day of cold, drenching rain, just after the face of the Danish Parliament building had been decked out with the flags of FAO's 42 member nations. (The total membership had been raised to 47 before the meetings closed.) This trick of weather was

the only real flaw in the setting of the Conference. Otherwise the arrangements and background of the sessions were all that could be asked. The Parliament quarters in the Christiansborg Castle, provided ample space, along with an air of grave elegance, for both full-dress sessions and committee work. FAO's Danish hosts were friendly and helpful. Evenings that could be spared from work were well filled up with official or unofficial entertainment for delegates and staffs. The city's food was a special topic of conversation. It not only was good but—at least in most hotels and restaurants—so plentiful as to amaze visitors from even well-fed countries like the United States. All of these are small matters if you like, but as long as delegates are human beings, they will have a lot to do with the way a conference runs.

Deeper Implications

The setting of the Conference had some deeper implications as well. It was the first meeting in Europe of an organization with many European members. The location gave people from other parts of the world a chance to get the feel of an area recently occupied by the Nazis and to sense the apprehension that there may be another war. On this side of the ocean the idea of what another war would be like is real, but largely mental. There, the fear of another war is a matter of heart and stomach as well as head. The feeling is stronger there that the world is on the edge of a precipice unless the nations act together promptly and constructively.

Another point that becomes a lot sharper when you live with it in-

stead of just read about it, is the way world finance affects practically all phases of living. Denmark has plenty of food, while many other countries, including some within a rocket's range, are hungry. The Danes in turn, want many other kinds of products, and need markets for their food so they can buy them. The intricate workings of international exchange are standing in the way. The situation was an object lesson to anyone who might believe that problems of food and agriculture can be attacked as separate in themselves.

Meaning for World

King Christian X of Denmark formally opened the Conference on the morning of September 2. Henrik de Kauffmann, Danish Minister to the United States, was elected permanent chairman, and the delegates settled down to work. They covered a lot of ground, even aside from work on a long-range program. The Conference was the first since FAO was organized at Quebec, so it had the job of reviewing the Organization's first year of work and checking on its plans for the next year. Some of this work was too technical to try to unravel here; some was pure routine. But there were actions with a great deal of present-day meaning for agriculture and the rest of the modern world.

For instance, the Conference took up the preliminary report of the FAO mission that a few months ago made a broad study of agriculture, fisheries, and forestry in Greece, and recommended a long-range program of development. This kind of study is one of the jobs FAO was especially set up to do, and the Greek

Government was the first to ask for that kind of technical assistance. The Conference studied the preliminary report carefully and asked the Director-General to consider how similar technical services might be made available to other nations requesting it during the coming year. The Conference asked FAO to keep on making appraisals of the world food situation at least annually, and to undertake a broad study of supplies and requirements of fibers and perhaps other nonfood products, along the lines of the thorough World Food Survey issued last summer. In view of the present world shortage of wood, the Conference recommended that a mission be sent promptly to the chief forest regions of Latin America as an aid in developing resources that are not now being exploited. Five new countries—Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, and Switzerland—were admitted as FAO members. Those were just some of the actions that may be far-reaching.

Long-Range Program

But the unmistakable center of interest at Copenhagen was the long-range program. That is what most of the chief delegates and many of their aides came prepared to talk and act about. They were an outstanding group. Seventeen cabinet members and a half-dozen of sub-cabinet rank were there, along with a distinguished group of scientists, economists, legislators, and government administrators. The United States set a delegation of 27, with N. E. Dodd, Under Secretary of Agriculture, as chief representative, and L. A. Wheeler, of OFAR, as alternate; U. S. Senators Elmer

Thomas and Raymond K. Willis, and Representative Clifford Hope were there as Congressional advisors; and the four major national farm organizations were represented. Hazel Stiebeling, Lyle Watts, and Oris Wells were there, along with other experts from Agriculture, and other Government departments.

Sir John's Proposal

The starting point of the discussion was a report by Sir John Orr, "Proposals for a World Food Board." He had prepared the report at the request of the Special Meeting on Urgent Food Problems which met in Washington last May. That meeting, although it dealt chiefly with problems of emergency food shortages, had noted that even in a time of world scarcity, farmers in many countries were already worrying over the return of the same kind of unmarketable surpluses that plagued them before the war. The FAO Director-General was asked to study the problem and recommend ways of dealing with it.

His report showed a belief that the problem, tough as it is, can be mastered. There was just one reason for this optimism—the great need for more food and other farm products than the world ever has produced. FAO's recent World Food Survey had indicated that even before the war, in a period now looked back to as a time of plenty, about half the people of the world were seriously undernourished, and only a third had really enough to eat.

With these unfilled wants in mind, Sir John went at the "surplus" problem as one of getting the world's great agricultural production to the people who need it. The way to ac-

Endeavor

One has never the right to renounce action, or at any rate to renounce attempted action. No action is ever completely lost even if it does not succeed all at once.

—PAUL VAN ZEELAND

comply this, his report said, is to increase purchasing power of people who now cannot buy all the food and other farm products they need. This in turn would call for raising productivity in both industry and agriculture, especially in the less developed areas of the world. An effort of that kind, he pointed out, requires the broadest kind of co-operation, among national governments as well as international organizations such as the International Bank, the proposed International Trade Organization, and others.

To round out this broad program, he suggested creation of a World Food Board that would aim at stabilizing agricultural prices on the world market and at increasing consumption. The kind of Board he recommended would hold stocks of important nonperishable commodities, buying into its stocks when world prices fell below an agreed-upon bottom level, and selling when the price passed a top level. Thus the proposed Board would seek to stabilize world prices within a certain range, and establish a world food reserve against emergencies.

The Board would have the power to dispose of surpluses on special terms to nations needing them but unable to buy at going prices. Finally, the Board would work closely with international agencies concerned with credits for agricultural and industrial development, and with trade and commercial policy.

Sir John formally presented his report on the third day of the Conference. He was all earnestness as he took the speaker's platform and surveyed the delegates from under his bushy white eyebrows. He told them that the two great problems—hunger and the increasing power of farm production—should cancel each other out. "But", he said, "they can cancel out only through an international agency which can deal with food problems as a whole." Such an approach "would bring prosperity to an expanding agriculture and an extended world market for industrial products."

Response

For the next 2 days major figures at the Conference spoke in response to the Director-General's proposals. All supported the general objectives; there was a wider range of opinion on some of the suggested details and as to the best methods for carrying the idea further.

Speaking for the United States Mr. Dodd said this: "In the United States, food production was increased by one-third during the war, and that same high level of production is being maintained still to help relieve world food shortages. . . . As labor becomes more plentiful and fertilizers are increased, farmers in the United States will be able to make further increases in crop pro-

duction. When that time comes, the period of the food relief emergency is almost certain to be passed. Farmers of the United States and of many other parts of the world may then have great difficulty in finding adequate markets. . . . I do not believe that it is necessary for farmers again to undergo such difficulties. . . . I believe . . . farmers generally can have fair prices and the world can have better nutrition, but we will have to devise better methods than we have in the past to make it possible. We are therefore strongly in favor of the general objectives laid down by Sir John Orr."

The Conference turned the report over to a special committee, headed by Herbert Broadley of the British Ministry of Food, who presided over the large and highly articulate group with great skill enlivened by occasional flashes of dry wit. Within 3 or 4 days the committee had agreed on its basic beliefs and (what sometimes is just as important at a conference) the words to express them.

Objectives Approved

On the last day, September 13, the whole Conference approved the objectives of the Director-General's proposals, which the Committee has defined as "(a) developing and organizing production, distribution and utilization of the basic foods to provide diets on a health standard for the peoples of all countries; and (b) stabilizing agricultural prices at levels fair to producers and consumers alike." The Conference then established a Preparatory Commission to work out details of a pro-

gram. Contrary to a fairly widespread belief, the Conference did not approve, or in fact pass any opinion on, the suggested provisions of the food board plan. But it did instruct the Commission to study the Director-General's proposals, along with any other relevant material.

Alternative Proposals

The meeting of the Preparatory Commission in Washington that opened in October is the result. As expected, the representatives of the several nations advanced several alternative proposals as to how the objectives agreed upon at Copenhagen could best be achieved. Under Secretary Dodd, for example, indicated that the United States believed the American proposals for an International Trade Organization could best serve as a starting point for the Commission's discussion of work. These proposals call for a general reduction in world trade barriers, and they make allowance for the use of commodity agreements under certain circumstances. The British delegate indicated that his Govern-

Again

The way must be peaceful, generous, just—a way which if followed the world will forever applaud.

—ABRAHAM LINCOLN

ment was interested in stable prices and reserve or buffer stocks, but that a commodity-by-commodity approach might be most desirable.

The Commission is charged with considering Sir John's original proposal and feasible alternatives. But the thing to remember is that after all these materials have been studied, the primary task of the Commission is to work out definite recommendations as to how objectives agreed upon at Copenhagen can be achieved. It will report back to the FAO Director-General, who will in turn submit the report to FAO member governments and international organizations represented on the Commission, and then call a full conference of FAO to consider such specific proposal or proposals as may be advanced. Any final scheme or programs, however, will have to be

considered by the United Nations, before coming into actual operation, and must be ratified by the several Governments concerned.

* * * * *

As John Orr sees it, even more is at stake than better diets for the world's consumers and more prosperity for its food and agriculture producers. "The center of interest now passes from this Conference to the Preparatory Commission", he said as the Copenhagen meeting closed. "Things are not going well in international affairs. Already the fear of another war casts its shadow on mankind. But there must be no war, and if the nations cooperate on a world food plan based on human needs, there will be no war. We are racing against time."

Destiny

I think it not improbable that man, like the grub that prepares a chamber for the winged thing it never has seen but is to be—that man may have cosmic destinies he does not understand. And so beyond the vision of battling races and an impoverished earth, I catch a dreaming glimpse of peace.

—OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES

Yearbooks of Agriculture: 100 Years of Tradition

By ALFRED STEFFERUD. *In this brief article, the editor of the forth-coming Yearbook of Agriculture 1943-1947, the first Yearbook since 1942, notes a few items about it and its predecessors.*



SOME DAY, I hope, there will be a Yearbook of Agriculture about the Yearbooks of Agriculture.

The idea might sound like one that would yield only a tour de force, but it actually could be a significant, unique history of American farming. One of the contributors to it should be Philip Wagner, editor of *The Baltimore Evening Sun*, a collector of old Yearbooks who reads and loves them, and a man of trenchant thought and word.

The point comes up now in connection with the forthcoming Yearbook of Agriculture 1943-1947, named *Science in Farming*. It is the first volume since 1942, and it could be called the 50th Anniversary Yearbook or the 100th Anniversary Yearbook, depending on the way one reads history. Besides, the coming book describes many of the developments in agricultural research of the war years and is therefore more closely related to the old Yearbooks than the series of books, each devoted to a single broad subject, which Gove Hambidge and Henry A. Wallace began in 1936 and which will be the pattern of the books after this one.

The first Yearbook to be labeled so was issued in 1895—an imperfect

representative, Assistant Secretary Charles W. Dabney, Jr., said then, "of the ideal of what such a Yearbook should be," but nevertheless a welcome innovation from the previous annual administrative reports that had included, "perhaps unavoidably, discussion of the investigations carried on in the Department."

Some persons consider the first Yearbook the one published in 1863, the year after Congress passed and Abraham Lincoln signed a bill authorizing the establishment of the Department. But even before that the boys in a back room of the Patent Office coped with the few problems of the nascent American agriculture and the Commissioner of Patents annually asked "the warm friends of agriculture and practical husbandmen in different parts of the country" for information on "the aspect, progress and success of the crops in the various sections of the land where they lived." The friends and husbandmen sweat over their assignments during the long winter evenings and produced the copy for the aboriginal Yearbooks.

Among them, for example, was H. Ancrum of Pike County, Missouri: "The object of this paper is to prove that wool mattresses make the

healthiest, the warmest, the most luxurious, the cheapest and the most economical bed that can be made, and that it is superior to any other material for a bed for men, women and children, for all ages and sexes, and that man recovers much sooner from fatigue on such a bed than on any other."

About 100,000 copies of the 1847 Yearbook, for which Mr. Ancrum wrote, were printed; about 250,000 copies of the latter-day Yearbooks are printed as a congressional document.

"Not Yet Routinized"

Mr. Wagner, the collector, first awoke to the "singular fascination" of these volumes (he said in a review of the 1940 Yearbook) when he happened onto the volume for 1847 in a second-hand store:

"In those early years the writing of Yearbooks had not yet been bureaucratized and routinized. . . . These volumes suggest, as no formal history can hope to do the quality of the American mind in the expanding years of the early nineteenth century, when we had a great country, knew in our bones that it *was* a great country, and weren't yet at all sure in which directions its greatness lay. Agricultural ideas, good ideas, bad ideas, glowing ideas, flew off in a hundred directions, as particles thrown out by a centrifuge."

About some later volumes, Mr. Wagner lost his enthusiasm, and his words merit thought:

"But as I gathered more of them I found that the quality of the later volumes failed to bear out the promise of the earlier ones. For as the Department of Agriculture gathered

wealth, power and momentum, this business of producing an annual volume on the state of husbandry in the United States got itself into a groove. The task became mechanized and routinized. . . .

"Then, at the end of the year 1936, there appeared one of the few achievements of the New Deal about whose excellence there has been no controversy whatsoever. . . . The Yearbook of 1936 was a brilliant achievement and the preparation of it was like a fresh wind blowing through the halls of the department building in Washington. It was the great opportunity for some hundreds of genuine investigators—horticulturists, bug men, geneticists—who had been languishing in frustration since their conquest by the agricultural economists, the grow-less men in the early days of the depression. . . ."

The Coming Book

As a friend who has the right to be a critic, Mr. Wagner has a good deal more to say about Yearbooks. I cannot copy it all here, except (lest I be accused of devilishly quoting scripture for my purpose) I must mention that Mr. Wagner found the 1940 book a headache.

Views like his must be taken seriously; every editor—even the editors of a volume that ranks as a best seller and may be called the biggest publishing venture of its kind in the world—must give sober thought to making a book that is useful, practical, interesting, and attractive to as many readers as possible.

In this new book we have 150-odd authors, each of whom has been told to write as he wants to write, not the way he thinks vaguely his su-

periors want him to write. He should write as he would like to be written to before he acquired his present knowledge of the subject; their articles must not sound as if they came out of a single mould or were subjected to a "readability" scale that assigns good and bad points to the number of personal pronouns or passive verbs, or big words they contain.

We have been conscious, too, that the 250,000-odd copies of the Yearbook are read by all kinds and conditions of men—farmers, mostly, who are wonderfully quick to spot the specious and the spurious in a subject that so vitally concerns them and about which they know so very much.

There are city folk, too, among Yearbook readers, like Mr. Wagner, and college students, county agents, Extension workers, gardeners, market men, housewives—as diverse a group as any man wrote or edited for, and a group so eager that they have taken all the past Yearbooks out of print.

Practical and Useful

We should have a book this year that contains good, practical, useful information for many people—almost ("almost" because the book takes about 6 months just to go through the presses) the last word

on the methods of agricultural research, animal nutrition and diseases, cross-breeding of dairy cattle, plant genetics, growth regulators, nutrient balances, anthracnoses, sorghums, corn, hybrids, trees, photoperiodism, fertilizers, bees, irrigation, DDT and its successors, egg cooling, rutin, Velva Fruit, work clothing, mildew, and many another important development from test tube, pilot plant, and test plot. The articles are grouped into several major sections: Backgrounds, animals, plants, soils, forests, insects, engineering and techniques, new products and uses, the home, and meanings.

Besides articles by technicians in Washington and Beltsville, and in colleges, experiment stations, and laboratories in all parts of the country, the Secretary of Agriculture has written an introductory foreword on the importance of the subject matter, and W. V. Lambert, administrator of the Agricultural Research Administration, has a concluding article on the future of research. In it he calls for greater attention to conservation and utilization of our resources and products, besides a number of points specified in the new Research and Marketing Act of 1946 which appropriates a substantial amount of money for further research.

All in all, it's a big tradition to live up to.

*The Substances of what we think
Tho' born in THOUGHT, must live in INK.*

—Early Williamsburg Publication



Books

INTERNATIONAL ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION. By J. TINBERGEN, Elsevier, Amsterdam; New York. 1945. 208 pages.

THIS BOOK of the well-known Dutch economist, who formerly was attached to the Secretariat of the League of Nations, discusses theoretical problems of the international economy and then develops proposals for international economic cooperation.

As a basis for his theoretical analysis, the author takes the fact that—even in the absence of specific government intervention—many obstacles often delay adjustment to changing conditions. Thus they limit the operation of competitive forces in the international economy. While he considers these forces the best means of achieving an optional division of labor (and hence the highest total production) under conditions of full employment, he advocates protectionistic measures when there is need for breaking a vicious cycle of depression and bringing about structural changes in the economy. He does not overlook, however, that protection is also used widely to make possible continued uneconomic production, and that it is difficult to decide when protection serves the one and when the other purpose. In conformity with this general philosophy, he advocates interference also in the monetary system, as in particular exchange-rate changes (in preference to wage-

rate reductions) in the typical cases of a balance-of-payment disequilibrium.

The author calls for a concrete program of regulating international economic relations. Besides issues meanwhile settled, such as lend-lease or the establishment of international financial agencies, he discusses some problems that deserve considerable attention, as for instance the question of curtailing the sovereign power of nations in the fields of commercial policy and international payments. He favors such curtailment in general, and in particular regarding the trade in certain raw products where national intervention has become widespread "but from an international point of view is little satisfactory." He pleads for a coordination of the various national trade-cycle policies.

He is greatly concerned with the problem of reducing the differences in living standards among the nations. To promote a solution of this problem, he not only strongly advocates international development loans, but he also calls for a redistribution of natural resources. For, he argues, raw-material production is a source of income which should be equally available to all nations. This argument is contrary, however, to the doctrine (to which he pro-

fesses adherence) of the gain resulting from the international division of labor.

When the author points to the large underdeveloped countries of India and China his suggestion becomes rather unrealistic. What tremendous population movements would be required to give their teeming millions a more equal share in the world's natural resources! How large would be the costs! Then there are the social and political disturbances and tensions that would be an unavoidable consequence of uprooting and resettling so many millions of people. But most of all,

how unnecessary is such a scheme in modern times, when education and technical development make possible high living standards even for densely populated countries, as demonstrated by the case of the Netherlands, his own native country, whose "land hunger" he emphasizes. Especially if we believe in a world economy, as Dr. Tinbergen says he does, we have to seek the solution of the world's problems not in upsetting schemes of a Hitlerian type but in world trade and world economic cooperation.

—Oscar Zaglits

IT HAPPENED IN TAOS. By J. T. REID. The University of New Mexico Press. Albuquerque. 118 pages.

IT DID HAPPEN in Taos! If you are interested in soil conservation, if you are interested in livestock improvement, in the school lunch, in greener pastures, in better tax collection, in a functioning rural church, in irrigation, in rural health, in the people's artistry, in library service, in better rural schools—it all happened in Taos. If you are concerned about improvement of human living the world over, here is the story of how it can be done, of how the people can do it. This is the story of a demonstration. It is in itself a pattern and a philosophy.

Taos is a county in northern New Mexico. The Sangre de Cristo Range, a spur of the Rockies, towers above the villages in the mile-high valley and the dry table lands. It shares in the fascinating history of the Southwest and in the rich tra-

ditions. Its people, most of whom have lived for generations amid its beauty and ruggedness, reflect the pressures of their immediate environment. They are "philosophical, patient to a point of fault, kindly, tolerant and deeply religious." But steeped in defeatism. Their economic plight was serious when the demonstration was begun.

Their problems were not new. They were an accumulation of generations of living, the same kind that plagued mankind everywhere. But in Taos County something happened. "Everybody got together on everybody's business." This book tells what happened, why it happened, and how it happened. It is the story of how an underprivileged people can be helped to work together to help themselves to make the most of their natural and personal resources

and to use the equipment and services available to them.

In an age when planning is a key word and coordination its ready second, it is stimulating to know of such successful planning by the people themselves, for their own job. Like most American counties Taos had some functioning agencies to serve the people, but their attacks on the problems had been each on its own, and not too fruitful. With patient effort each has been fitted into the picture, and through effort coordinated by the people themselves, each is now giving apparently a maximum technical and scientific service.

How can people be helped to help themselves? The American Association for Adult Education and the Carnegie Corporation provided the spark. To them it was an experiment in the possibilities of county planning. The State University assumed educational leadership and 36 agencies put in their offerings. The people were led to see and feel their own power, and to use it.

ALL OVER our country there are counties with like problems. The people of Taos County have demonstrated that something can be done

about them. They have shown that a people's plan, built around their own resources and adjusted to their own backgrounds, can lead to action that will change habits and improve human living. This story indicates the soundness of county planning and of coordinated agency projects. With this demonstration as a pattern other counties—east, west, south, or north—might well step out and attack their accumulations of problems.

IN THE WORLD-WIDE struggle to improve human living we need this pattern too. Over-all planning by the United Nations, coordination in the many areas of living—economic, nutritional, educational, social, and cultural—are needed to make way for achievement. But the real achievement lies in the hands of the people. It is their effort which will bring improvement. In the small governmental units of each Nation the people can be helped to understand and use our widespread knowledge to lift themselves out of deprivation and despair. And they only can do it. Through picture and text Dr. Reid tells us how.

—Lydia Ann Lynde

*There is a history in all men's lives
Figuring the nature of the times deceas'd;
The which observ'd, a man may prophesy.*

—SHAKESPEARE

ECONOMIC GEOGRAPHY OF CANADA. By A. W. CURRIE. The Macmillan Company of Canada Limited. Toronto, Canada. 455 pages.

"ECONOMIC GEOGRAPHY of Canada" is the first true geography of that country ever published. In its preparation, Currie has drawn upon the large mass of geographic and economic literature that has been published in recent years, largely in the form of articles in technical journals and reports prepared for the national and provincial governments. The resulting volume is clear, well organized, and authoritative.

Canada is divided into seven geographic regions—the Acadian-Appalachian Region, the St. Lawrence Lowlands, the Prairie Region, the Cordilleran Region, the Canadian Shield, the Mackenzie Valley and Hudson Bay Lowlands, and the Tundra, with an additional chapter devoted to Newfoundland and Labrador. Each region is discussed according to its topography, climate, agriculture forestry, mining, manufacturing, and developed and potential hydroelectric power. Crops, soils, methods of farming, land tenure, and the agricultural futures of the regions receive far more attention than is usual in an economic geography, the reason being the outstanding importance of agriculture in Canadian economy. In general the geographic regions delimited by Currie correspond to the physiographic regions of Canada. Only along the boundary of the St. Lawrence Lowlands and the Shield do the economies of the regions overlap to a marked extent.

From the standpoint of agriculture in general, manufacturing, and

commerce, the St. Lawrence Lowlands is much the most favored region. In all of the other regions forestry, grazing, fishing, or mining are of greater importance. All are important in the Cordilleran Region because of its great diversity of topography, climate, soils, and natural resources.

THE MANY differing geographic and economic factors influencing the development of all of the regions are well portrayed. To either the trained geographer or the economist, however, the discussions may seem oversimplified. Such criticism is probably inevitable for any book written for a wide range of readers; nowhere does the author indicate any specific group for whom he is writing. But the specialist will find adequate references for topics in which he is particularly interested. Unfortunately, all of the maps are reprints from other publications and do not ideally supplement the text. For example, the map of the physiographic regions of Canada accompanying the introduction does not use the same terminology as the text and shows only approximately the regions discussed. One good map drawn specifically for the text would have improved the book enormously. Nevertheless, in bringing together in a single volume the salient features of all of the regions, Currie has made a definite contribution to Canadian geography.

—Lois Olson

HERE IS a book which is rather different from the usual run of texts on agricultural marketing. It has a freshness of viewpoint and is distinctly readable. If the reader looks for another characteristic which is outstanding and commendable he will probably find it in Professor Shepherd's view of the evolutionary character of marketing organizations and methods. This involves not only consideration of the past development of marketing, but also an attitude of looking for and welcoming further change.

Generous use has been made of the voluminous material pertaining to marketing prepared by various agencies of the Federal Government, especially the Department of Agriculture. This is as it should be. The charts and tables here reproduced provide a wealth of statistical material relating to the marketing of agricultural products.

The book is divided into three parts: The Physical Production and Distributive Plant; Meeting Fluctuations in Market Prices; and Reducing the Costs of Marketing.

The first part is actually concerned primarily with presenting the economic setting of the problems and processes of marketing. It discusses the demand and supply of farm products and their relation to the marketing system and the price-making process.

The second part deals with prices—cyclic movements, seasonal movements, futures prices and their relation to speculation, price relationships in decentralized markets, negotiated prices, with a final chapter entitled "Grades, Values and Prices."

Most of this appeared previously in the author's *Agricultural Price Analysis*.

Reducing the Costs of Marketing is an inappropriate title for Part III since most of the material in this section is a description of the organization and operation of the marketing system. Thus the chapter called Reducing Grain Marketing Costs might better be called simply Grain Marketing. It contains much information about this marketing and there is a discussion of grain-storage problems, including the adequacy of grain-storage supervision. Nowhere, however, does the author address himself to the question of how grain marketing costs can be reduced—or even to the question of whether they can be reduced. It is the impression of the reviewer that the use of the words, "reducing . . . costs," is either the device of a publisher to increase sales or the trick of a journalist to catch the readers' interest. In a book written for an uncritical audience, or as titles to short articles, such devices may prove effective, but here they seem out of place. In any event this Part III provides an excellent example of misbranded merchandise.

The critical reader may wish to quarrel with the author's conception of the field of marketing, for in it he includes not only the general field of agricultural prices but much of what is traditionally considered to be in the field of agricultural production. Thus he says, "The first agricultural marketing problem, therefore, is to determine each year what kinds of food and fiber consumers want . . . farmers need to determine these

things each year . . . and lay their production plans accordingly."

The breadth of Professor Shepherd's concept of the field of marketing perhaps explains why he says, "Agricultural production problems are easier to see and easier to deal with than marketing problems."

On another page he states, "In order for a central market price to represent 'the price' of the commodity satisfactorily, . . . the volume of trading at the central market must be large enough to constitute at least a representative sample of the trading in the commodity all over the tributary area . . ." Such a statement regarding a representative sample is sufficient to give a susceptible statistician apoplexy!

An entire chapter is devoted to The Two Parts of the Price-Making Process. These are: "(1) the determination of the value of *the commodity* . . . and (2) the determination of the value of the *particular lot* . . . relative to other lots . . ." This is an oversimplified and mis-

leading dichotomy. First of all, is there any such thing as the value of *the commodity*, wheat? A buyer and a commission may have before them two samples of wheat—the one No. 2 Hard Red Winter, Smutty, the other No. 3 Soft Red Winter, Garlicky. Perhaps the problem of judging the physical quality characteristics (both those accounted for in the official grades and those not so recognized) may well be considered a separate part of determining their value. But determining the relative *value* of those characteristics is no more a separate part of the price-making process than is determining the value of wheat relative to oats.

Many more examples might be cited, but these must suffice to indicate that the book, although it embodies much effective work and is very useful and readable, lacks something of being a well-planned and well-matured piece of work.

—E. J. Working

An Index to volumes 8 and 9 of the LAND POLICY REVIEW
will be sent on request

It is not enough to yearn for peace. We must work, and if necessary, fight for it. The task of creating a sound international organization is complicated and difficult. Yet, without such organization, the rights of man on earth cannot be protected. Machinery for the just settlement of international differences must be found.

—HARRY S. TRUMAN

1.
n.
a.
ry
d.
an